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ABSTRACT

More than 58 percent of all women working in the U.S. labor force, many of them sole supports of their families, and 67 percent of women with children under age 18 are working. Therefore, more flexible work options are being made to allow a balance of work and family. Increasingly available options include work at home, compressed workweeks, resources for elder and child care, job sharing, part-time employment, telecommuting, and flextime. Making use of flexible work arrangements, however, may have negative effects on one's career, such as limited work responsibilities, ineligibility for promotions, no salary increases, lack of prorated benefits, and lack of visibility. Benefits include the chance to keep current in one's occupation, continued identification with the work force, and the opportunity to meet personal and family commitments. Flexible staffing, which may temporarily reduce hours or workers, is more beneficial to employers than to employees. Flexible work schedules take the following forms: flexitours, variable days, variable weeks, maxiflex, flex year, summer hours flextime, compressed workweeks, and a gliding schedule of starting times. Benefits of flexible work arrangements to employers include retention and attraction of quality employees, higher productivity, improved morale, and the capacity to respond to operating requirements with staffing flux. (This report includes a list of 13 references and an annotated list of 9 additional resources.) (KC)

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BALANCING WORK AND FAMILY THROUGH FLEXIBLE WORK OPTIONS

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MONOGRAPH

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INTRODUCTION

Economic, social, and demographic changes in the United States have caused major changes in the work force and in families. Labor statistics reported by the U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau (1993a, 1993b) and the Women's Research and Education Institute (1992) reveal the significance of these changes.

1. **Nearly 58 percent of all women were labor force participants in 1992—58 million women. They represented 45 percent of the civilian labor force. Nearly 74 percent of divorced women were labor force participants; likewise for 65 percent of single, never-married women; 62 percent of separated women; and 59 percent of married women with spouses present.**

2. **Working wives contribute substantially and are an essential resource to family income. Nearly 60 percent of wives in married-couple families worked and in 1991 wives' earnings contributed a median of 31 percent to their families' incomes.**

3. **In 1992, 12 million families were maintained by women—a figure that has more than doubled since 1970. This rise reflects the increasing incidence of divorces, heightened marital separations, and a growing number of women establishing families without marrying. Families maintained by women with dependent children in the United States comprised almost 18 percent of all families.**

4. **The 34 million women with children under age 18 had a labor force participation rate of 67 percent in March 1992. Most women (85 percent) have children (Schwartz, 1992). Approximately 80 percent of working women become pregnant during their working lives, and over half return to work within a year of childbirth. Women with dependent children are as likely as women who are not parents to work full-time.**

5. **Child care and work and family balance are increasingly defined as *family*, not *women's*, issues. In 1992, men maintained 16 percent (1.4 million) of families with dependent children. Men are becoming more involved in parenting and are more vocal about their parental needs as employees. Responsibilities toward children and aging parents affect both female and male employees.**

6. **Women's poverty rates and unemployment seems to be associated more with race, age, and marital status than with parental status. Almost 12 percent of mothers who maintained families experienced unemployment, a rate double that of mothers who were married. Approximately half of all black and Hispanic families maintained by women lived in poverty, compared to 28 percent of all white families maintained by women.**

Companies realize that the nature of the work force is changing, as are the needs of their employees. Traditional models of work require people to devote the majority of their time and energy to employment at the same time they are bearing and raising children. These models are being re-evaluated. Dual-career (two-earner) families and single-parent families are most likely to experience how inappropriate traditional models of work can be for today's families.

These statements can be easily related to the educational setting also. Traditional educational models requiring students to devote the majority of their time to attending classes and doing homework is not an option for all individuals. Single working parents and displaced homemakers with dependent children, as well as other students, could benefit from more flexibility in the

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delivery of educational services. Flexible slotting in and slotting out of programs, flexible scheduling of classes, and on-site day care could help attract students needing to balance work and education. Flexible education arrangements could attract and better serve more nontraditional students.

This monograph focuses on flexible work arrangements to help vocational educators inform and prepare their students for work. Teachers can empower students by educating them about emerging trends in work so they can have realistic expectations, as well as a role in changing workplace policies to support families. In addition, vocational educators could apply the information to their own work settings, and to negotiating flexible work arrangements for themselves.

FAMILY-FRIENDLY EMPLOYMENT

The United States does not have a coordinated set of public and private "family-friendly" employment policies, but changes are occurring. Companies are cautious about adding programs or establishing policies that might increase costs or decrease productivity because they are struggling to compete in a global and volatile economy; however, family-friendly programs, policies, and services are on the increase.

Evidence that companies are changing their policies and expanding programs to assist employees who are parents (or who have other dependents) is found in the eighth annual survey conducted by *Working Mother* magazine. The assessment criteria used to identify the "100 Best Companies for Working Mothers" represented key areas of concern to working mothers, including competitive pay and amount of opportunities for advancement. A broad range of programs that support child care, as well as varied family-friendly benefits designed to reduce conflict between work and family responsibilities, were recognized. Table 1 shows policies, programs, or services found in this October 1993 survey by *Working Mother* magazine. They reflect major trends evident in businesses in the United States.

Table 1
MAJOR TRENDS

Priority Programs, Policies, or Services
Leave for childbirth
Benefits for part-time employees
Pretax salary set-asides to pay for child care
Phase-back for new mothers, through part-time or work-at-home hours
Resource and referral service to help employees find child care
Disability Plus plan that pays women full salary for at least some of the time after childbirth, usually based on length of service
Job sharing
Flextime options

Increasingly Evident Programs, Policies, or Services
Work at home
Compressed workweeks
Resource and referral service to help employees find elder care
Funding for community child care
Adoption aid
On-site child care
Company-match savings plan
Sick-child days
Scholarships for employees' children
Full-time work and family coordinator

Other Programs, Policies, or Services
Summer child care programs
Subsidies for, or on-site, sick-child care
Disability plan providing women partial pay for 6-8 weeks after childbirth
Participation in the American Business Collaboration for Quality Dependent Care (ABC), an organization that provides millions of dollars to support child and elder care projects in 25 states
Back-up child care
Near-site child care
Profit sharing
On-site health or fitness center
Direct child care subsidies or discounts
Before and after school child care programs
Paternity leave
Holiday child care programs
Reimbursement of child care costs for business travel and overtime work

—*Working Mother, Oct. 1993*

IS FLEXIBILITY BENEFICIAL TO DISPLACED HOMEMAKERS AND SINGLE PARENTS?

Family issues clearly motivate and dominate the career decisions of many individuals, especially displaced homemakers and single parents. Flexible work schedules and arrangements are becoming more common and more formal. Although flexible work options seem highly responsive to the needs of some displaced homemakers and single parents, the need for higher wages may be an even larger problem.

Flexible work arrangements are sometimes thought of as a "women's program," predominantly because family roles and responsibilities continue to be gender-based. Work and family balance is a gender-neutral concept; however, most women are, or are perceived to be, the primary caretaker of family responsibilities.

Women, whether married with employed husbands or single parents, are most likely to use part-time employment or job-sharing arrangements in order to balance work and family responsibilities (Catalyst, 1993). Male employees have flexibility through flextime and compressed workweeks or through flexible locations (telecommuting).

The federal government experimented with flexible work schedules in 1979 and found that single parents considered setting their own schedules to be a very important benefit. Single parents stated a preference for longer days with a three-day weekend either every week or every other week (Bureau of National Affairs, 1986). Flexible work schedules (typically associated with full-time employment) may better meet the needs of single parents and displaced homemakers with dependents than do flexible work arrangements (often associated with less-than-full-time employment).

However, classism of occupations and sexism in the workplace may severely limit the availability of flexible work schedules and arrangements for the working mothers most in need of flexibility, namely some displaced homemakers, and single parents. In many cases the limited earning power of these women compounds their problems in balancing work and family. The following facts from Catalyst (1989, 1993) and the Center for Policy Alternatives (1992) support this claim.

1. **Almost half (44 percent) of all employed women and most employed women maintaining families work in technical, sales, and administrative support jobs. Women are almost half as likely as men working full-time in technical, sales, and administrative occupations to have flexible schedules (10% and 18%, respectively).**

2. **Many employed women maintaining families in 1992 worked in service industries, especially food, health, cleaning and building services. Only about 8% of women (and men) working full-time in service occupations have flexible schedules.**

3. **Of all women employed full-time, those employed full-time in managerial and professional specialty occupations are the most likely to have flexible schedules. Divorced female family heads are the most likely of employed women maintaining families to hold managerial or professional specialty occupations, and only 25 percent are in such occupations.**

4. **The median family income of women who maintain families was $16,692 in 1991. Women who earn under $25,000 are likely to think that better pay would improve family life more than flexible hours.**

5. **Flexible work arrangements such as part-time employment, job sharing, and telecommuting are more likely to be utilized by employers as a privilege to be earned. Eligibility is likely to be based upon tenure and prior job performance. In one study, employees with a flexible work arrangement initiated the arrangement, on an average, after 6 years with the company and used the arrangement an average of 5 years (ranging from 6 months to 13 years). It seems therefore highly unlikely that displaced homemakers with dependents and single parents—who are just entering the work force—will be able to negotiate a flexible work arrangement.**

6. **Flexible work arrangements are not likely to reduce child care costs. Parents with flexible work arrangements may have to pay for full-time child care either because it is the only option available or the need to maintain work schedule flexibility requires a full-time child care arrangement. Parents who work different hours can find child care very difficult. People working at home must have alternate child care during work hours. (Less travel time and closer proximity to the location of child care may, however, make more time available to be with children.)**

7. **Almost six of every ten women surveyed stated that they preferred a job with flexible hours over (1) a regular workweek, (2) not being employed, or (3) working part-time or at home. However, only one-quarter of surveyed women think their primary personal struggle is their own rigid work schedule. Women who think that better pay would improve family life more than flexible hours include women working part-time, African-American women, women who earn under $25,000, and single women.**

RISKS AND BENEFITS OF UTILIZING FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

The risks and benefits of utilizing flexible work arrangements have been examined by Catalyst (1989, 1993) and the Bureau of National Affairs (1986). The information in this section was compiled from these sources.

Utilization of a flexible work arrangement may have negative effects of one's career. Potential losses include—

- limited work responsibilities,
- ineligibility for promotions,
- no salary increases,
- lack of pro-rated benefits, and
- lack of visibility (which may affect perceived value or promotability).

The career slow-downs that may be experienced by employees who utilize a flexible work arrangement are usually considered reasonable trade-offs for what is gained. Benefits include—

- chance to keep current in one's occupation,
- continued identification with the work force, and
- opportunity to meet personal and family commitments.

Overall, flexible work arrangements do support continuous career momentum.

In addition to the balancing of work and family responsibilities, employee needs that can be met through flexible work arrangements include—

- phase-in to retirement,
- accommodation of educational needs,
- career-related projects unrelated to one's employer (e.g., starting a business, writing a book),
- increased productivity,
- cost reductions (e.g., travel, clothing, food), and
- avoidance of relocation (may allow spouse to maintain employment or child to maintain school).

For telecommuters, the last three items are especially important.

Employees who have used a flexible work arrangement offer this advice to those considering such an arrangement.

1. Understand the trade-offs.
2. Plan to educate supervisors, subordinates, and colleagues about flexible work arrangements.
3. Maintain visibility.
4. Formalize and evaluate the arrangement.
5. Be flexible.
6. Arrange flexible child care.

FLEXIBLE STAFFING VS. FLEXIBLE SCHEDULING

Work force flexibility is offered by employers to assist employees in balancing work and family responsibilities. However, some forms of flexibility are responsive more to employers' than to employees' needs. For example, **flexible staffing** is designed to cut or control labor costs, to buffer economic security, and to protect the job security of a core staff. Flexible staffing strategies include reassigning personnel to different functions or organizational units as needs change; establishing internal temporary pools; using "outside" workers such as contingent temporary workers, leased employees, self-employed independent contractors, or consultants; and contracting out parts of the operation. Work-sharing is a form of flexible staffing that temporarily reduces the hours and salary of an organization's work force in an effort to avoid layoffs. It is often paired with short-term compensation from unemployment insurance.

On the other hand, **flexible scheduling** is utilized by companies to retain and recruit good performers, to enhance the corporate image, and to meet work and family needs of employees. It is useful to further distinguish flexible scheduling (or flexible work schedules) from another form of flexibility, **flexible work arrangements.**

FLEXIBLE WORK SCHEDULES

Popularly called **flextime,** flexible work schedules vary widely but generally reflect a division of work time as *core* (a period during which all employees must be present) or *flexible* (a period during which employees may choose, within limits consistent with the duties and requirements of their positions, when they will be present). Flextime typically indicates flexible starting and ending times; however, there are many variations to this pattern. These are shown in Table 2.

Table 2
FLEXTIME OPTIONS

Flexitour
An employee's start time is preselected and may be modified with the prior notification and approval of the supervisor.

Variable Day
Presence during core hours is required, but the length of the workday may vary at the employee's discretion as long as the basic work requirement (e.g., *full time* is defined as 40 hours per week) is fulfilled. Credit hours, or any hours of work in excess of the basic work requirement of a given period, may usually be carried over between pay periods within specified limitations, usually less than 10 hours.

Variable Week
Presence during daily core hours is required, but the length of the workday or workweek may vary at the employee's discretion as long as the basic work requirement is fulfilled. Credit hours also apply.

Maxiflex
Presence during core hours that are scheduled on less than 5 days per week is required, but the length of the workday or workweek may vary at the employee's discretion as long as the basic work requirement is fulfilled. Credit hours also apply.

Flex Year
Work is planned for an entire year, with *core time* defined as months of the year or periods of a month. Employees schedule blocks of time off as voluntary unpaid leaves of absence or take intermittent time off, and salary is prorated over 12 months. This is sometimes referred to as *percent time* appointments.

Summer-hours Flextime
Special hours are observed during the summer, providing longer-than-usual weekends for the majority of employees (e.g., an extra hour may be added to the beginning or end of the workday from Monday to Thursday, and the Friday workday ends at noon).

Compressed Workweeks
Compressed workweeks enable full-time employees to complete the basic work requirement in less than the typical number of workdays. Overtime pay is usually continued for hours beyond the basic work requirement, and credit hours typically do not apply or are carried over between pay periods with limitations. Compressed workweeks take a variety of forms, and organizations that operate 24-hours a day may establish unique models. The two most common forms of compressed workweeks are—

- "4-10"—employees work 10 hours per day for 4 workdays and
- "5-4/9"—employees work 9 hours per day for 5 days in one week, slightly longer hours for 4 days the next week, and have a day off on alternate weeks.

Gliding Schedule
Starting time may vary at the employee's discretion within a previously approved flexible band.

Other Options
Less common than flextime or compressed workweeks, flexible use of vacation time and personal days to attend to child care or other parental responsibilities are other options made available by employers as family-friendly policies.

Among full-time wage and salary workers, men who are in managerial and professional specialties or in technical, sales, and administration support occupations are the most likely to have flexible work schedules. Women and men who are operators, fabricators, and laborers are least likely to have such flexibility. Employees who are white are more likely than those of other races to have flexible work schedules. Hispanic men and women and black women are the least likely of all employees to have flexibility. This reflects the massive proportions of whites and of males among managerial/professional and technical/sales/administrative support workers—the large occupational categories most likely to offer flexible work schedules to full-time employees.

Small companies (10-49 employees) and private sector service industry employers are most likely to offer flexible work schedules and flexible leave time for child care purposes. Recent studies regarding flexibility for managers and professionals (Catalyst, 1993) and surveys about flexibility for different groups of employees (Conference Board, 1989; Olsten, 1992), each representing diverse industries, reported that 23-36 percent offered compressed workweeks and that male employees with flexible work arrangements primarily used flextime and compressed workweeks.

FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

Three types of flexible work arrangements that are attracting increasing attention are part-time employment, job sharing, and telecommuting. Employees nearing retirement may seek such flexible work arrangements, thus reducing their work hours or the length of their workweek. Companies refer to this option as phased-retirement.

Part-time Employment

In 1992, 66 percent of all part-time workers were women. Regular part-time employment is often associated with female-dominated, low-wage, and no-benefits occupations (e.g., clerical, secretarial, and retail sales jobs). Only recently has part-time employment become an option sought voluntarily by exempt employees, including those within management and professional occupations. In a 1989 study by Catalyst, women constituted 100 percent of the managers using part-time arrangements. Part-time employment exists on a permanent, temporary, on-call, or intermittent basis. The Conference Board (1989) and Catalyst (1993) reported that part-time work arrangements were offered by 90-93 percent of the companies surveyed. Table 3 shows the most prevalent part-time arrangements.

Table 3
PART-TIME WORK ARRANGEMENTS

Reduced weekly hours—usually 20 hours, or 3 days per week. Variations include working part-time each of 5 days, consecutive or alternating full days on some of the 5 days per week, or a combination of full and part days some of all 5 days.

Reduced annual hours—usually based on a percentage of a full-time schedule. This arrangement is useful for handling fluctuating or seasonal workloads, during which time work is likely to be full-time.

Transactional part-time—related to project work and may reflect a full-time schedule, but intermittently.

The need to attract and maintain more women in the labor force is undoubtedly responsible for the increasing likelihood that fringe benefits are offered to part-time employees. Medical and life insurance were generally available to part-time managers (prorated or requiring an employee contribution), and vacation, sick days, and holidays were typically prorated (Catalyst, 1989). The prevalence of part-time work arrangements and the prior experience of companies with this type of arrangement contribute to the perception by management that it is the easiest of alternative arrangements to negotiate and to implement.

Persons who negotiate a part-time work arrangement from a full-time work commitment may either experience a reduction in workload, be assigned project work, or maintain a full-time workload. Although some employees are able and willing to do full-time work on a part-time schedule for a short period, resentment of such a burden in exchange for time flexibility is likely to develop if done for extended periods. Persons who work in occupations or companies where the standard for *full time* is 60-80 hours per week sometimes negotiate part-time arrangements that actually ensure *only* 40 hours per week (or no evening and weekend work). Small companies (10-49 employees) and private sector service industry employers are most likely to offer voluntary part-time work for purposes of child care.

Job Sharing

Job sharing, sometimes considered a form of regular part-time employment, is an arrangement still relatively new but growing in use. Studies by Catalyst (1993), the Conference Board (1989), and the Olsten Corporation (1992) reported that 18-22 percent of 600 diverse industries surveyed offered job sharing, as did 73 percent of 70 companies surveyed. Managers and professionals are using job sharing on a small scale. In 1989, nearly 96 percent of job sharers were females. Job sharing is not well understood by management and is perceived as difficult to implement. Table 4 shows the three most prevalent models of job sharing and scheduling arrangements.

Table 4

JOB SHARING MODELS

Shared responsibility—Two people share one full-time job, and both perform the full range of job functions.

Divided responsibility—Two people share one full-time job but perform separate tasks, dividing responsibilities by project or by client group.

Unrelated responsibility—Two people are matched only by full-time equivalent, not by job duties, and may even work in different departments.

VARIOUS JOB-SHARING ARRANGEMENTS

Split week, consecutive days (2 1/2 days per person)

Split week, non-consecutive days (splitting or alternating Fridays)

2 day/3 day split (2 days for person 1 and 3 days for person 2, alternating)

Alternating weeks

Although shared- and divided-responsibility arrangements are conducive to allowing job sharers to serve as back-ups to each other, this is not a requirement of job sharing. Methods and frequency of communication between partners are particularly important in job-sharing arrangements. Small and large companies are almost equally likely to utilize job-sharing work arrangements for purposes of child care. Government is more likely than the private sector to utilize job sharing for this purpose.

Telecommuting

Telecommuting—also known as work-at-home, home-based work, or flexplace—is the least commonly used form of flexible work arrangements, but it is growing, especially in geographic areas where environmental issues are major concerns (e.g., air quality, traffic congestion). Telecommuting is especially fitting in a service economy and in an age when information can be easily transported through technology. Indeed, telecommuting is heavily reliant on technology, especially telephones, fax machines, computers, electronic mail, and pagers.

Studies by Catalyst (1993), the Conference Board (1989), and the Olsten Corporation (1992) reported that 7-13 percent of 600 diverse industries surveyed offered telecommuting, as did 53 percent of 70 companies surveyed. In a 1989 study of managers, Catalyst reported that men were more likely than women to utilize telecommuting (55 percent and 45 percent, respectively).

Telecommuting typically refers to work done primarily at home but requiring some regular hours in the office. It may also reflect work done in a satellite office which is linked to the main office but which is nearer the residence of the employee. Telecommuting is most likely to be offered by small companies (10-49 employees) and almost equally likely to be offered by goods-producing and service industry employers for purposes of child care.

HOW TO ENCOURAGE EMPLOYERS TO IMPLEMENT FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

Flexible work schedules and arrangements are used in a broad range of industries, in companies and firms of various sizes, in the private and public sector, in virtually every functional area, and in union and nonunion work settings. Some jobs may not be appropriate for certain types of arrangements. Work cultures will be more or less supportive of flexibility. Some employees and some managers may not be suited to work in or to manage some types of flexible arrangements.

Successful implementation of flexible work arrangements may depend more on the work culture and the receptivity of individual managers than on the existence of a flexible work arrangement policy (Catalyst, 1993). Middle-management resistance can be a major obstacle to flexible scheduling. Work cultures which value worker autonomy, which define productivity by output, and which maintain reasonable work hours are more supportive of flexible work arrangements than are work cultures with high supervision, where excessively long workdays and workweeks are standard, and where face-time (time spent in the presence of supervisors) is the major means of measuring productivity.

Table 5
EMPLOYER BENEFITS TO FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS

1. Increased likelihood that a new parent will return to work, and as soon as possible, after the birth or adoption of a child
2. Attracting of quality people, especially women, who want flexibility, either now or in the future when they plan to have children
3. Capacity to respond to operating requirements during peak seasons or special projects
4. Need for higher productivity
5. Improved morale (often thought to be linked to higher productivity) among employees, especially parents
6. Retention of the expertise and experience of employees who plan to retire
7. Saving or managing of costs (e.g., reducing and expanding the size of work force based on work needs; saving relocation costs through use of telecommuting arrangements)
8. Access to a broader range of skills or increased schedule flexibility when hiring staff
9. Building of fill-in or replacement potential (Catalyst, 1989)

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Overall, flexible work arrangements do meet one major employer need: retention of experienced and valued employees. In negotiating for flexible work arrangements, it is important for employees to help their employer realize the benefits of flexible work arrangements to the company. These are shown in Table 5.

Things to consider when negotiating flexible work arrangements with employers—

- Understand all the alternatives.
- Consult with human resource specialists in the company.
- Investigate individual experiments with flexible work arrangements within the company.
- Research relevant company policies.
- Understand the benefits to the employer and to yourself.
- Identify supportive managers.
- Develop a proposal.
- Negotiate a personal arrangement with the employer.

Managers who are supportive of flexible work arrangements accept family concerns as legitimate issues in the workplace and are comfortable discussing work and family matters with employees. Managers successful in implementing flexible work arrangements are notably flexible and fair. A comprehensive understanding of the company's programs and policies related to flexible work arrangements is essential.

Flexible work arrangements do challenge even the most supportive manager with new responsibilities, for which managers typically require training. Such responsibilities include—

- reassessing job definitions,
- rearranging work assignments,
- planning work around different time constraints,
- developing new ways to monitor and evaluate work and productivity, and
- relying on trust rather than control as a supervisory approach.

Catalyst (1993) offers the recommendations shown in Table 6 to companies seeking to establish flexible work arrangements.

Table 6
RECOMMENDATIONS TO COMPANIES

1. Develop a workable policy (avoid creating obstacles or discouraging exploration).
2. Clarify the impact that flexibility will have on advancement.
3. Educate all levels of management about flexible work arrangements.
4. Provide training for the managers who will be negotiating, supervising, and evaluating employees utilizing flexible work arrangements.
5. Make flexibility available to full-time employees.

Students having to balance work and family responsibilities will be better prepared to negotiate flexible work arrangements with employers once they understand their alternatives. Managers and employees exploring the option of flexible work arrangements can be supported in their efforts through education, coaching, involvement in policy development, and information-sharing.

Table 7
FLEXIBLE WORK ARRANGEMENTS—
TERMS TO BE NEGOTIATED

Salary—Will it be prorated either to actual hours or percentage of the job, or remain the same? Will it be converted to hourly pay? Will stock options, bonuses, and incentives still apply?

Benefits—Are these dictated by company policy, which often maintains medical and life insurance? Will benefits be prorated or require employee contribution? Will vacation, sick days and holidays be prorated?

Schedule—Will time be required in the office by job duties, supervisor or partner preferences, overtime expectations, busy and slow periods, family demands, or child-care arrangements?

Availability outside scheduled hours—Under what circumstances will this be expected or considered overtime?

Duration and checkpoints—Will this arrangement be short-term, long-term, or open-ended with identified periods for measuring productivity?

Performance measurement—What clear and objective measurements of productivity will be used? Will performance and salary reviews be maintained as typical for other employees?

Career issues—Will there be access or limitation to supervisory responsibilities; types of projects; travel; promotions; developmental opportunities; and methods of addressing and overcoming negative attitudes about the arrangement with peers, subordinates, or other managers?

Circumstances requiring a return to a full-time work schedule—Does accepting a flexible work arrangement assume the willingness to return to a full-time work schedule upon request?

Equipment availability and usage—Will the company or employee provide necessary equipment, installation and start-up costs, insurance, and space? Will workers' compensation be provided? (Catalyst, 1989)

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ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

These resources are available for loan to Ohio vocational educators through your state-sponsored Sex Equity Resource Library at the Center on Education and Training for Employment, 1900 Kenny Road, Columbus, Ohio 43210; 614/292-4353 or 800/848-4815; Steven Chambers, Librarian.

The Dual Disadvantage of Displaced Homemakers: Findings from the Study, Low-wage Workers: Trends and Options for Change. (1989). Washington, DC: Institute for Women's Policy Research.

This report, given by Roberta M. Spalter-Roth, Ph.D., Deputy Director for Research, before the Subcommittee on Employment and Productivity, U.S. Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources, is based on a research study done for the U.S. Department of Labor and the National Displaced Homemakers Network. The report states that many displaced homemakers work at more than one job in order to try to earn a full-time, full-year salary. Problems of low wages and inadequate preparedness for moderate- to high-wage jobs confront displaced homemakers.

Employers and Child Care: Benefiting Work and Family. (1990). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

Content includes information concerning child care services for working parents; government subsidies for child care costs; conflicts between work and family responsibilities; benefits to the employer from employee child care initiatives; employer involvement in programs that support working parents; child care initiatives for small businesses; federal tax issues relating to employer child care support programs; assessment of the need for family-oriented policies and benefits; planning and cost analysis; and implementation guidelines.

Flexible Workstyles: A Look at Contingent Labor. (1988). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

Presents a summary of the conference "The Contingent Workplace: New Directions for Work in the Year 2000," which was cosponsored with the Graduate School and University Center of the City University of New York and in which the National Council for Research on Women cooperated. This publication presents data on part-time and temporary workers; the forces driving contingent work; the variants of contingent work, including independent contracting and employee leasing; and implications and consequences of contingent work, including union responses.

Gender, Parent-Role Quality and Psychological Distress: A Study of Men and Women in Dual-Earner Couples. (1992). Wellesley, MA: Center for Research on Women, Wellesley College (Report No. 250).

This paper explores (1) parent-role quality and its association with psychological distress; (2) the effect of gender on the association of parent-role quality and psychological distress; and (3) the impact of number of children on the association of parent-role quality and psychological distress.

National Displaced Homemakers Network 1993 Program Directory. (1993). Washington, DC: National Displaced Homemakers Network.

A link to over 1300 programs, agencies, and educational institutions that provide job training and other vital services to America's 15.6 million displaced homemakers. The directory includes a list and order form for NDHN-produced publications and resources.

Risks and Challenges: Women, Work, and the Future. (1990). Washington, DC: Wider Opportunities for Women.

Part of WOW's 2-year policy analysis and public education campaign, Chapters 9-11 address work and family balance. Journalist Peggy Simpson provides a rationale for "Adjusting the Workplace to Fit Women and Their Families." Barney Olmsted, codirector of the nonprofit organization New Ways to Work and co-author of *Creating a Flexible Workplace* speculates about "The Contingency Trap: Flexibility or Dead End?" Alice H. Cook, Ph.D., professor emerita in Industrial and Labor Relations at Cornell University, reviews "Public Policies to Aid Dual-Earner Families."

What Is Good for Women and Minorities Is Good for Business: What Corporations Can Do to Meet the Diversity Challenge. (1990). Wellesley, MA: Center for Research on Women, Wellesley College (Report No. 218).

This paper recommends flexible work schedules as a way to help both traditional and nontraditional employees to lessen work-family stress.

Work and Family: Child-Care Arrangements of Young Working Mothers. (1992, January). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics (Report No. 820).

Data is provided on the arrangements made by working mothers (aged 23-31 in 1988) for the youngest child (aged 5 and under and not attending regular school).

Work and Family Resource Kit. (1990). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau.

Written for employers, this kit reviews options available for responding to the range of family needs emerging in the workplace and clarifies the advantages and disadvantages of each.

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